

DWIGHT'S AMERICAN MAGAZINE,

AND

FAMILY NEWSPAPER.

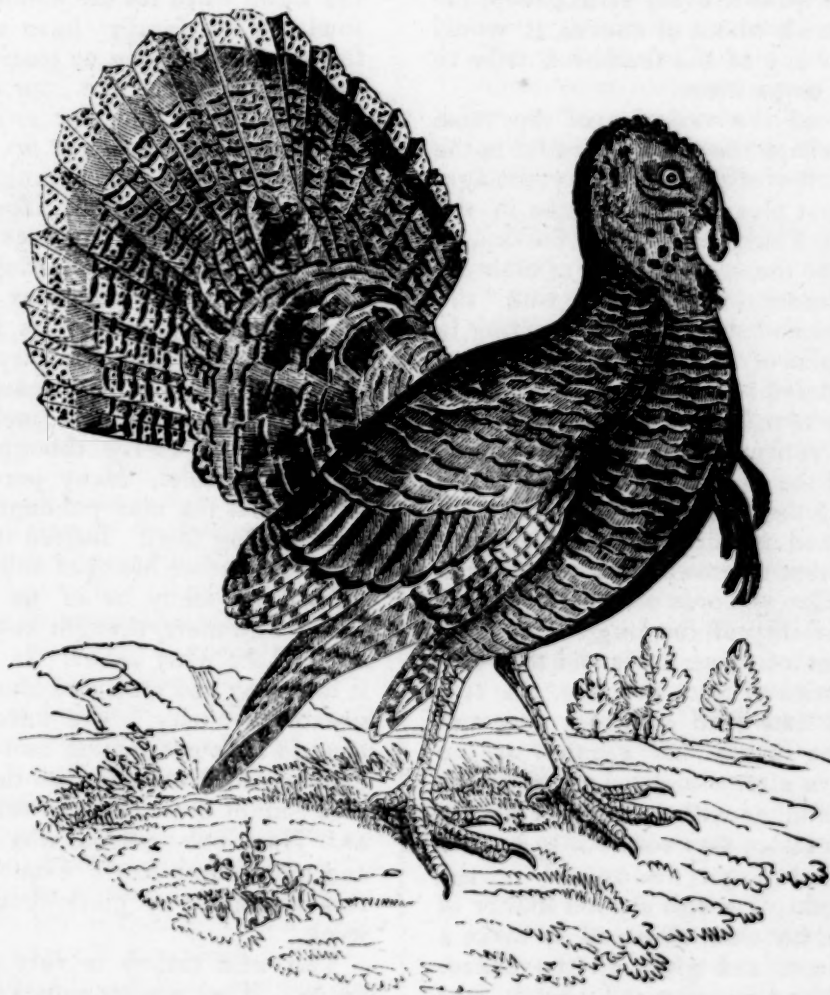
EDITED BY THEODORE DWIGHT,
Express Office, 112 Broadway.

PRICE 4 CENTS, SINGLE.
\$2 A YEAR IN ADVANCE.

VOL. III.

NEW YORK, SATURDAY, APRIL 17, 1847.

NO. 16.



THE WILD TURKEY.

This beautiful and valuable fowl is one of the gifts made by the New Continent to the Old. It was originally an American bird, though now one of the most common favorites among the fowl tribe in Europe, and much modified by domestication. The colors of the fowls are generally rendered very various by the food and habits to which they are trained under the care of man; and on few, perhaps, have more varieties of color been conferred than the Turkey, although in such parts of our own country as we are best acquainted with, a large proportion of them, especially the males, generally

retain much of the glossy, black plumage of their wild ancestors. So familiar have they now been, for several generations, to all ages accustomed to look on rural scenes, that we can hardly realise the difference which has taken place in their habits, since our domestic turkeys have become the willing inhabitants of our barn-yards and poultry-houses. The size of this fowl, added to the delicacy, richness and wholesome nature of its flesh, render it an universal favorite; and so highly is it esteemed for food, that, in spite of the facility of raising and fattening it, few if any spots on earth can be

shown where the supply equals the demand.

In the wild state the Turkey is an object of peculiar interest to the observer of animated nature: for it presents an important figure, and a mien almost majestic, owing to its size, form and motions, especially the male, which, when full grown, and walking with expanded plumes, surpasses every rival except the peacock, with whom of course, it would be vain for any of the feathered tribe to dream of competition.

Among all the varieties of the tame turkey, perhaps the most beautiful is the white. A few of these, some years ago, made a most pleasing appearance in the Garden of Plants, or King's Garden, in Paris, where the snowy purity of their expanded plumes, in contrast with the green grass and shrubbery abounding in the little plat of ground appropriated to them, rendered them some of the favorite objects seen in that favorite retreat of scientific retirement and rural taste. Among all the writers who have given us traits of the Wild Turkey, Audubon has published most of the kind calculated to interest the common reader. One of his anecdotes affords pleasing evidence of the possibility of forming a friendship between one of these fowls and that universal favorite of man, the dog. A turkey which had been caught young and tamed, once made his escape to the woods, when after sometime a dog, which had been familiar with it when in a state of domestication, was sent out to pursue some wild turkeys discovered in the neighborhood. Though a good hunter of such game, he was observed to make a sudden pause, and give up the chase. Mr. Audubon was surprised: but it was soon discovered that the first of the fowls was the runaway turkey, and that the dog declined the chase on account of his regard for his old acquaintance.

We inhabit the native country of this fine bird, and have opportunities to learn its habits and character, yet how few of us have any precise acquaintance with it! In Europe there are many naturalists who regard with more interest than we do, the various natural productions of America. Fashion has much to do with taste; and it is to be regretted that its influence in the United States is still so little favourable to the pursuit of Natural History. We know that some improve-

ment has taken place within a few years. Many, compared with former days, are now pursuing one branch or another: but yet how few are they compared with the whole number of those, who might derive pleasure and profit from such studies!

The Turkey is one of the fowl tribe, called Gallinaceous Birds, from Gallus, the Latin word for the common barn-door fowl. This family have not the toes formed for grasping or tearing prey, like the eagles, hawks, &c., nor for climbing, like the parrot, nor for swimming, like the duck and goose, nor for wading, like the crane, nor for perching, like the sparrow. The turkey, like the other fowls, has three strong toes before, and only a short one behind, adapted to walking, with strong muscles in the legs, which can easily raise its heavy body. The wings, on the contrary, are small, and the muscles of the breast, which are the wing muscles, are small in proportion, and the merry thought, or breast-bone, is pliable. Many persons do not know what the merry-thought has to do in the living fowl. Indeed it is probable that some other bones of animals are regarded by many as of no determinate use. The merrythought keeps apart the ends of the wing bones. In flying-birds it is strong and stiff, and often double for greater security. We have the collar-bone in its place, which braces apart the ends of our arm-bones, so that the muscles cannot draw them towards each other. Now one reason why the turkey and most other fowls cannot fly far, is, this stretcher, or merrythought bone, is weak.

The wild turkey is very seldom seen flying. They are so remarkably swift on foot, that there is but little need of flight, except in uncommon cases. Mr. Audubon says, that turkeys are sometimes pursued for hours on horseback, without once rising on the wing. They abound in most of the unsettled and thinly populated parts of our country, and even are still known in some desolate regions in the oldest states. Their food is principally acorns; and they are generally fattest in the autumn. At that season they keep the woods resounding with their peculiar noise; and with proper care, may be killed or otherwise taken in great numbers.

Turkeys leave their roosts with reluc-

tance. In this they resemble other fowls. Sportsmen acquainted with their habits sometimes manage so as to shoot a whole flock, one by one, by picking them from their roosts with their guns, first taking those nearest the ground. The noise of repeated shots does not usually drive them away, nor the gradual diminution of their number, unless a dead one fall near the living ones.

Mr. Audubon describes a sort of covered pen sometimes used in the west, for catching them. It is made of logs, so placed as to offer the fowls a low but easy entrance, and a constant prospect of more space overhead, which, it appears, they are very fond of. The roof gradually rising as they proceed, the turkeys, after having once found their way, keep constantly proceeding; and having no disposition to return, and too little sagacity to see that by that means only they can recover their liberty, they remain in this open trap until taken out and killed.

The wild turkey is a fine specimen of its class. Among the feathered race few have a more dignified and graceful form and carriage. The plumage is dark, but glossed with many rich superficial hues, affording a fine play of metallic brilliancy at every step. There is considerable diversity in the depth of the colors, even in the wild state, perhaps, varied by age; as those brought to our market vary from a cross-barred, light grey to a dark bottle green, and almost to a black. The print at the head of this article gives a pretty accurate idea of the turkey as he appears in his native wild state, except that the neck is too thick. The bare head, with its bluish skin, the red fleshy pendant from its nose, and coarse, hairy bunches hanging from its breast, which form some of the peculiar marks of the male, are not so striking as they would be in a colored drawing. In the power of raising its tail, the turkey resembles the peacock. It is not however the tail-feathers, properly so called, which are thus elevated by either of these fowls, but the tail-coverts. No doubt they are commonly induced to exhibit their fine trains by a vain-glorious feeling: but the turkey, if we may credit Audubon, sometimes uses it as a means of self-protection. When a large owl makes its appearance among a roost of turkeys, as he informs us, one gives a note of alarm,

and it becomes almost impossible for the stealthy nocturnal depredator to succeed in his designs. The fowl which he pounces at raises its tail, and ruffles its feathers, so that the talons of the owl cannot strike through to wound the flesh; and then, quietly slipping from the roost, it slides to the ground, to reach a safer position.

It appears that the wild and the tame easily pass from one state to the other. Where flocks of tame turkeys are kept on farms near chestnut forests, they sometimes stray away far from home in the autumn to feed on the nuts, which, in their wild state, form a chief article of their food.

There is reason to believe that the turkey was unknown in Europe in the beginning of the sixteenth century, at least as an article of food: and the earliest notice of it to be found was given in 1525, although America had been discovered more than a quarter of a century. It may gratify the curiosity of some of our readers, to know the evidence in these cases. Archbishop Neville gave a sumptuous feast early in that century, and an epicure enumerated the dishes which were served up. Although many other birds are named in the list, the turkey is not mentioned in the number. In 1525, Oviedo, a Spanish writer, and author of the "History of the Indies," mentions that peacocks were found in the West India Islands, and on the neighboring continent.

A splendid species of the turkey has been found at Honduras within a few years, which almost rivals the peacock in the splendor and variety of its plumage; and this may have been the fowl to which Oviedo referred. It is called by the scientific the *Meleagris Ocellata*, and has excited much admiration. Unfortunately only a few specimens have been procured, and little is known of its history. From time to time we see brief notices of it in books and a drawing is given in the Naturalists' Library.

Those who are in the power of evil habits must conquer them as they can; and conquered they must be, or neither wisdom nor happiness can be attained: but those who are not yet subject to their influence, may, by timely caution, preserve their freedom: they may effectually resolve to escape the tyrant, whom they will very vainly resolve to conquer.

"HASH."

A "hash," well and properly prepared and compounded, is most excellent; but otherwise done, is "most intolerable and not to be endured," as Dogberry hath it. In the hope of enlightening our readers upon a most important branch of domestic economy, we publish the following, from an obliging correspondent, begging him, if he brings such excellent fare, to call again. He tells us that the recipe was procured during a long sea-voyage, when the cook, who, as long as there was fresh beef on board, treated the cabin to the most excellent compound, "morning, noon and night."—Neal's Gazette.

Now listen all ye matrons, who would save
your husband's cash,
And are willing on a washing day to dine on
savoury hash,
And save yourselves the trouble of roasting,
and of boiling,
And the fear that each and every dish is in
the course of spoiling:
I'll teach how, by wise economy, you may save
your scraps of meat
That are left from pienteous dinners, and
make a hash complete.

Take beef that has been roasted, and rather
underdone,
And from it take off all the fat, the skin, and
every bone,
Then cut it up in pieces, see no cartilage re-
mains,
Pick out each little piece of bone, and all the
stringy veins,
And pound it in a mortar, or with sharp
chopping knife
Mince it like meat in winter, when Christ-
mas pies are rife.

Now boil some white potatoes, which, hav-
ing mashed with care,
You must pass them through a wire sieve, to
see no lumps are there,
Then mix them with your minced meat, and
rub throughout the whole
Some little bits of butter, which well in flour
you roll;
Or you may use the dripping that oozes
from the roast.
Which every good and careful cook takes
care shall not be lost.

Now season well with pepper, with salt, a
little sage
And cayenne, but for this spice your taste
must be the guage,
You may chop a little onion, or chives, to
give it zest,
The taste of your own family, of course you
know the best;
Some much dislike an onion, or shallot, in the
food,

You may leave them out with safety—'tis
equally as good.

Your hash now being seasoned, you turn it
in a plate,
And smooth or flour it o'er the top, and set
before the grate,
Or place it in an oven, 'till handsomely 'tis
browned,
And send it to the table hot—a nice dish 't
will be found.
If any other meat you have, as mutton, veal
or lamb,
'Twill serve the purpose just as well if only
minced with ham. T.

Gentility.

In times gone by, when a lady went a shopping and purchased more goods than she could well carry home with her, the obliging shopkeeper despatched one of his apprentices to her house with the most cumbrous of the articles purchased, not because it was not 'genteel' for the lady to carry her purchases herself, but because it was too laborious. However, the notion has thence gradually obtained, that it is a mark of gentility to have one's purchases, large or small, sent home; that, perhaps, it makes one a superior being in the estimation of the shopkeepers, and excites the admiration of the young apprentice or clerk; and some of our misses or madams go so far in their genteel notions, as to request that a bit of ribbon or a piece of tape, purchased by them, may be sent to their houses, even though they should live at the extreme end of the city. The youngsters bear these indignities as well as they can, and occasionally contrive to eke a little sport out of them. Among other instances, we have heard of the following:—A lady called at a certain store, in Middle street, and purchasing a couple of 'rolls of tape' two inches in diameter, at most, requested that at a certain hour they might be sent to her house, which was in the extreme upper part of the city. At the appointed time the young clerk knocked at the door, and when her ladyship appeared, rolled them into the entry, tugging apparently from the effort, with as much ado as though they had been ponderous grindstones, and laconically remarking, as he drew in a long breath, that he had brought her tape home. This purchase, perhaps, amounted to the immense sum of four cents. In another instance, a young madam called at a store and pur-

chased a pair of kid gloves, which she requested might be sent to her dwelling. The clerk, at the appointed time, was sent with them; but he concluded that he had a right to be genteel as well as the lady, and on the way he hired a laborer with a hand-cart to do the job. On arriving at the house the young man rang, and when the lady appeared, the hand-carman, to carry out the joke, backed up his cart and unloaded on the side-walk, and thence lugged the bundle, which was of the dimensions of a good sized walnut, to the door. These notions of gentility seem to be getting more and more prevalent every day; and, what with the Mexican war, the new tariff, and other indications, it is pretty evident that we are getting to be a great and genteel people.—*Boston Courier*.

A ROYAL SUN-SHADE.—An umbrella-maker in England has devised an improvement on the parasol, and by way of bringing it into notice and favor—or, which is the same thing into fashion—he has presented a specimen to Queen Victoria, of which the following account is given by the London Court Journal:

The parasol is magnificently mounted on an exquisitely engraved and engine-turned gold stick, in varied chased devices; at the upper part of the stick is an enamelled laurel leaf circle, under which is a fac-simile of the regal crown, richly jewelled in diamonds, pearls, rubies and emeralds, from which crown issues a web of Elizabethan golden stems, so closely connected to the stick as to leave its secret machinery a subject of wonder, and create admiration of the singular and perfect ingenuity of the means resorted to for supporting its golden branches.

These branches extending from the stick sustain a most delicate and elegantly watered silk of cerise and white, with satin fall, relieved with an elaborately worked Honiton lace, at once displaying a perfect symmetry of shape and an unequalled richness of appearance. Below the tulip points of the ribs, or about the centre of the stick, are the rose, shamrock and thistle, encircled and tastefully jewelled. Immediately under is a delicately enamelled hand, with a tapered finger clasping the stick, and bearing around the wrist the words "I govern," brilliantly set, in part jewelled; and un-

der the hand is the cuff, or gauntlet, set with precious stones, combining exquisite taste, judgment and effect. The handle, ten inches in length, and composed of gold, is entwined with an enamelled spiral garter of eleven folds, mounted in brilliants, rising from a bulb, and concluding with the royal motto, (*Honi soit qui mal y pense*), which is inscribed upon it.

The extremity, or bottom part of the handle, of hexagon form, is beautifully set with varied gems, and at the end of this is an Oriental transparent topaz, through which appear the royal arms, splendidly engraved and pierced, surmounted by jewels. On touching a ruby secret spring, an ingeniously arranged scent or vinaigrette is disclosed. The exterior top-mounting of the parasol is a superbly worked horn of plenty, with a circle of brilliants enamel gradually widening to the surface of the parasol, and terminating with a rich device, bearing the semblance of the most choice fruits, all in precious gems, falling over a rosette of Honiton lace. The parasol is deposited in an elegant case, lined throughout with white velvet and satin, the exterior being covered in royal and purple velvet, bearing a tasteful device, with the letters 'V. R.' surmounted by the regal crown, embossed in gold.

By an ingenious though simple contrivance it opens and closes with almost incredible precision, without the necessity of extending the hand beyond its grasp, preserving a handsome and unerring shape, with an almost total disappearance of the unsightly extended inside wrist, and folding up to one third the usual size of a parasol.

At a villa near Milan, there extend two parallel wings about fifty-eight paces distant from each other, and the surfaces of which are unbroken either by doors or windows. The sound of the human voice, or rather a word quickly pronounced, is repeated above forty times, and the report of a pistol for fifty or sixty times. In Woodstock Park, England, there is an echo which repeats seventeen syllables by day and twenty by night; and there is one on the north side of Shipley Church, Sussex, which repeats twenty-one syllables!

Speak from the heart, when you speak to the heart.—*Art of Conversation*.

Memoirs of Mrs. Fry.

It includes a history of her labors in promoting the reformation of female prisoners, and the improvement of British seamen, by the Rev. Thomas Timpson, author of 'the Companion of the Bible, &c.' Messrs. Stanford & Swords, have just republished this new English work, containing a sketch of the life of this distinguished lady, who, during a long course of years, devoted herself to the improvement of the prisoners in the London prisons. Such records of her deeds and piety, as others have from time to time made known to the world, have gratified many persons in this country, and incited to similar enterprises, by the force of well directed and persevering Christian example. Not only numerous objects of her instruction, sympathy and prayers are her debtors, but every person, who loves his duty, and values every guide who aids him in its performance, must feel under obligations to Mrs. Fry. Multitudes will peruse this volume with interest; and we shall hope to find room for an occasional extract. In the meantime we copy from another work, the following account of a "visit of the King of Prussia and Mrs. Fry to Newgate."

"Many were the instances, during Elizabeth Fry's travels in foreign lands, as well as in our own country, in which she was led, successfully, to intercede for the persecuted and oppressed. Great and important changes were, in consequence, effected; particularly in an enlarged degree of liberty of conscience, and a relaxation of the severity of prison discipline. Many persons in whose minds religious conviction had been seriously cherished, and others who had been eminently devoted to love and serve the Redeemer, were brought into sweet fellowship of spirit with this beloved friend. Of these were some of the most distinguished among men.

The King of Prussia, who, with his Queen and other members of his family, had become nearly united to her in Christian love, visited Elizabeth Fry at Upton, during his stay in London, in the year 1842. By his particular request, she also met him at the Mansion House, between the times of public worship, on first day, the thirtieth of first month. They passed nearly two hours together on that occasion, and had much very se-

rious and important conversation, at the close of which the King expressed a strong desire to attend the reading at Newgate, the next day. Arrangements were accordingly made for his doing so. Elizabeth Fry was accompanied to the prison by her beloved brother and sister, S. and E. Gurney, her justly valued friend, Jane Pirie, (then lady mayoress), and several other coadjutors in the prison cause, the writer of this being one of the number.

The female prisoners were seated on each side of a lengthened range of tables, neatly clad, and with countenances that bespoke serious attention. Some of the city authorities were present, and the King was accompanied by several noblemen, English and Foreign. He led Elizabeth Fry through the passages and apartments of the prison, until they reached the seats placed for them at the extremity of the line of tables. A deep stillness ensued: then Elizabeth Fry read the 12th chapter of Romans, and a psalm. This was followed by a very solemn silence, broken at length by a most striking address, one part of which was particularly remarkable, from the manner in which she adverted to that perfect equality, in the Divine sight, subsisting between the souls of all mankind.

She said she had been much impressed by the passage, 'We being many, are one body in Christ, and every one members one of another.' Adding, 'If, through yielding to the grace of our Lord Jesus Christ, we are brought to be his disciples, we are made one in him, even from the lowest and most degraded of these poor prisoners before us, to our dear friend the King and Sovereign, who is now with us; if brought in true repentance and living faith to Christ, all are alike one in him.' After another solemn pause, Elizabeth Fry knelt in prayer, the King beside her, and she poured forth her supplication with great fervor and sweetness; first on behalf of the prisoners, then for all classes present, then she particularized 'the beloved monarch with us at this time, that he might experience the Holy Spirit to sanctify him, and to direct all his counsels, that he might govern his kingdom in righteousness;' then for 'those most dear to him in life,' for all who might be 'placed as rulers of his people,' and for 'his subjects generally;' and lastly, for 'all the nations of the

earth,' that they might 'become the kingdoms of our God and of his Christ, etc.

During the whole of this opportunity the king manifested great seriousness, and was often much affected. All the various persons present conducted themselves with strict propriety, but none more strikingly than the poor convicts; not any one of them was observed to turn the head, or to look at the august stranger; all of them appeared very serious and attentive, and tears of tender contrition trickled down the cheeks of many. Who could witness such a scene within these walls, and recur to days that were past, when nothing met the eye or ear, but that which exhibited the utmost degradation of the human species, without a deep sense of adoring gratitude to Him whose power was thus manifested to be sufficient to subdue the most obdurate heart?

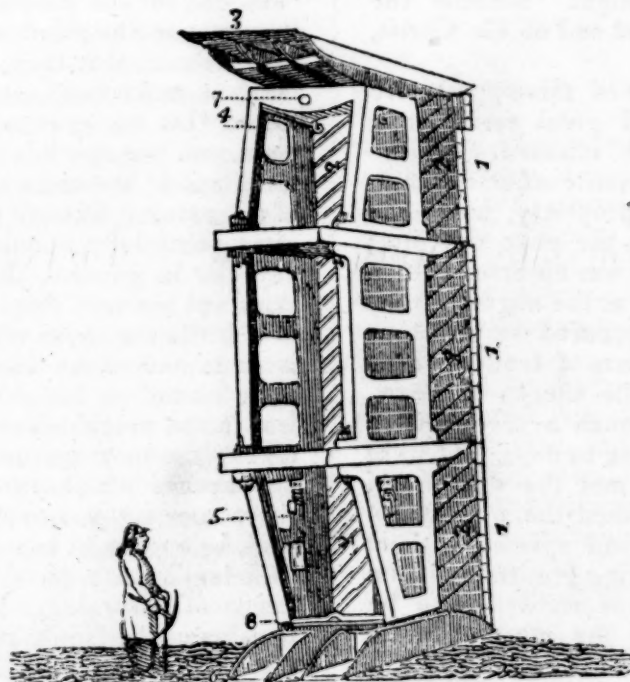
On leaving the prison, the King accompanied Elizabeth Fry to her own house.

Funeral Ceremonies in Egypt.

The Moslim ceremonies that have reference to the dead are generally very interesting; and their wailings, which would be deeply affecting, were they always sincere, seem to express the most intense, heart breaking, despairing grief. The art of wailing in the most approved style appears to be an accomplishment that can only be acquired by long practice; and regular professors of it are usually hired on the occasion of the death of a person of the middle or higher classes. These accompany their lamentations with a tambourine, and occasionally interrupt their screams by plaintive songs, their performances, and those of the female mourners, in general, are such as were practised in most remote ages; such as we see portrayed upon the walls of the ancient Egyptian tombs, and such as are mentioned in many parts of the Holy Scriptures; as in 2 Chron. xxxv., 25; Jerem. ix., 18; Amos v., 16; and St. Mat. ix. 23; vividly bringing to mind 'the minstrels and the people making a noise' for the death of the daughter of Jarus. As illustrative of the Bible, these and other Eastern customs are to be most especially interesting. 'Consider ye,' says Jeremiah, exhorting his countrymen to bewail their disobedience,

'and call for the mourning women, that they may come; and send for the cunning women, that they may come; and let them make haste, and take up wailing for us, that our eyes may run down with tears, and our eye-lids gush out with waters;' and by the same means the feelings of a mourning Eastern family seem to be most powerfully excited at the present day, for in general, the most piercing cries and screams that I hear, on account of a death, are those which interrupt the lamentations of the hired mourner, who is 'cunning' in her art. The cemeteries in the neighborhood of Cairo are among the most picturesque of the various scenes which surround us; and in these are many private burial grounds, each belonging to one family, who, if of sufficient wealth, have within its walls a house of mourning. To this house the females of the family regularly repair at festivals, as well as on extraordinary ones, to bewail their dead; having previously sent thither such furniture as is necessary for their comfort; and there they remain, on the occasions of the great festivals above mentioned, and immediately after a death, three or more days and nights. Some of the houses of mourning are pretty and cheerful looking buildings, and enlivened by a few trees and flowers; and I believe that the women often find no small pleasure in visiting them; their life being in general so monotonous. Some women, who have no houses in the burial ground for their reception, have tents pitched for them when requisite. [Selected.]

A MEDICAL HINT FOR MOTHERS.—A medical correspondent of an English paper, attributes the high shoulder and the lateral curvature of the spine, which so frequently disfigure young females, to the shoulder straps of their dresses, resting below the shoulder and on the muscle of the arm, instead of being on the shoulder, which compels the wearer to be constantly hitching her shoulder to keep up her dress; an action that results in a forcing up of the shoulder, a distortion of the chest, and a lateral curvature of the spine. He also states, that from this dangerous practice, and the consequent exposure of the chest to the cold, the inward tubercles are formed, and not unfrequently, consumption is engendered.



MACHINE FOR EXCAVATING THE THAMES TUNNEL.

This print represents a side view of a portion of the strong frame-work, called "The Shield," which was used in the excavation of the celebrated tunnel completed a few years since, under the river Thames. Our readers are generally acquainted with the nature and object of this work. The river is so excessively crowded with vessels and boats of all descriptions, where it flows through the lower parts of London, that a bridge must necessarily cause many obstacles; and yet the inconveniences of ferries are numerous and great. Yet the importance of having some convenient, safe and constant means of crossing is extreme; and the plan of a tunnel under the river's bed, after many doubts and difficulties, was undertaken. Years, however, elapsed before it was completed, in consequence of unforeseen occurrences, the most formidable of which was the breaking in of the earth and water over the heads of the workmen. At length, however, by the exertion of ingenious expedients and patience and perseverance, the work was accomplished, and many a visitor to the great metropolis of England, especially every American traveller, hastens to give it an early inspection. The sensations with which one passes through the long, and beautiful double passage, so far beneath the level of the ground, cannot easily be described. Of its form our ear-

ly subscribers have already had an opportunity to form an idea, as our first volume contains a small, but correct view of it. Lighted with gas, and enlivened by passing crowds by night as well as by day, when the recollection occurs, of the river overhead, with its numerous ships from all quarters of the world, the sight becomes indeed impressive.

Our readers will naturally like to become acquainted with the means by which this great work was effected, amidst so many obstacles. The first thing to which we shall invite their attention is the 'Shield' a part of which is represented above. It was a collection of frames like the above, made of very strong timbers, altogether forming a fabric of the same height and breadth as the intended excavation, and divided by cross pieces into compartments, each of proper size to contain two workmen, and to allow them room to use the pickaxe and shovel. The whole was mounted on low slides, so that it might easily be pushed forward, as fast as the earth in front of it was removed. One of the men in each compartment dug away the mass of earth in front, while his companion threw it out behind, into receiving wag-gons by which it was removed. A strong wall of masonry was built as fast as the machine proceeded, with an arched roof.



THE RED ADMIRAL BUTTERFLY.

A person ignorant of entomology, on seeing the butterfly depicted above, might exclaim, "I have often seen such an insect!" A naturalist would probably be reminded of some or all of the following facts, which are well known to those acquainted with the history of this beautiful creature.

Its English name is Admiral Red Butterfly. While many other butterflies are found only in a few particular countries, this is seen in all parts of Europe, the north of Africa, and the United States. In Teneriffe and the East Indies it is unknown: but another insect very nearly like it takes its place. How much then do we lose, through the want of that scientific eye, to which the annual expanding and folding of the Red Admiral's brilliant wings open, by association, a glimpse at so vast a portion of the earth's surface, painting it to the imagination with the splendid dyes of this beautiful insect!

But this is only one fact out of several, all well worth knowing. The entomologist can instantly refer this harmless, lively and gaudy flutterer to its proper place in the scale of nature. He well knows that it belongs to a kind called *Vanessa*, having its wings covered with hundreds of thousands of scales, which hold the colors it displays, and that it belongs to the great class of Butterflies, so distinct from beetles, and the other ten genera of insects. He knows that its feelers (or antennæ) have an oval lump

at the end; that the palpi, or short points sticking out from the head, are peculiarly formed; that the wings have small points on the hinder edges; that it cannot walk well, because its fore legs have but one joint. He knows that it resembles several other common sorts of butterflies in these particulars; all of which are therefore placed in the genus *Vanessa*.

The knowledge of the entomologist does not stop here. He is reminded, perhaps almost unconsciously, that this butterfly must have been, a short time before, a caterpillar, covered with long spines, which, with admirable ingenuity, though for the first time in its life, formed for itself a tight little bag suspended in the air, and that after remaining thus, without air, food or exercise for a certain time, it burst from its self imprisonment, spread out its broad wings, gaily but differently painted on the opposite sides, and without training or experiment, joyfully betook itself to a new element, and fluttered before the view of one prepared by previous study to appreciate the wonders of its nature, if not fitted, by a holy training of the heart, to raise a thought of gratitude and praise to Him who created "everything that hath life."

We hardly need seriously to put the enquiry to the reader; is it not a duty to occupy waste time with the study of subjects which may become so intimately connected with moral and religious improvement?

"The period in which an insect remains in the chrysalis state is not always of the same duration, although at the same period of the year it is similar; for instance, those caterpillars of the swallow-tailed butterfly which are changed into chrysalides about the middle of July, appear as butterflies at the end of thirteen days, while those which appear in the caterpillar state at the beginning of September remain during the winter in the chrysalis, and do not become butterflies until the spring. "Thus," says Reaumur, "here is one butterfly which only remains thirteen days in the chrysalis state, while another, precisely similar, requires nine months to bring it to perfection: just as though the inhabitants of cold regions were to live four or five centuries, while the life of those dwelling under the equator was only to be extended to its ordinary length: hence it is evident that by evaporation or combination of the fluid parts of a chrysalis, produced by the application of heat, the insect is brought to its perfect state much quicker at one period of the year than at another."

Conceiving, therefore, that the butterfly is not in a state to burst from the chrysalis, until by the action of heat and insensible perspiration a certain quantity of superabundant humidity has evaporated, and the other fluid parts of the body become assimilated, Reaumur came to a conclusion, that in proportion to the quickness with which the process of evaporation is effected by the increase of heat, the sooner the butterfly would be enabled to escape from the chrysalis. Acting upon this idea, this celebrated author tried various experiments with chrysalides, the result of which fully justifies the conclusion at which we had arrived, and thereby proved that he was enabled to prolong or shorten the life of an insect at pleasure. Thus, by placing various kinds of chrysalides, which would not naturally produce perfect insects until the spring or summer, in one of the hothouses of the Jardin des Plantes, in the month of January, 1734, he found that they very shortly produced butterflies and moths, those which would not have appeared until May escaping from the chrysalis at the end of ten or twelve days, others in three weeks, and others, which would not have become perfect insects until August, in five or six weeks.

The insects thus produced differed in no single respect from those reared in a state of nature.

Respecting the periodical appearance of insects, the '*Cicada septemdecim*,' subsequently noticed, which is said to make its appearance only once in seventeen years, affords one of the most striking examples; but there are several of the British butterflies which are not less remarkable. Among these, the painted lady butterfly (*Cynthia cardui*) is eminently conspicuous, occurring in the neighborhood of the metropolis every third or fourth year. The fine white bordered butterfly (*Vanessa antiopa*) is another instance of this irregularity. Mr. Hawkworth remarks upon this insect, "There is something very extraordinary in the periodical but irregular appearance of these species—*Edusa* and *Cardui*. They are plentiful all over the kingdom in some years, after which *Antiopa* will not be seen by any one for eight or ten or more years, and then appear again as plentiful as before. To suppose they come from the Continent is an idle conjecture, because the English specimens are easily distinguished from all others by the superior whiteness of their borders. Perhaps their eggs in this climate, like the seeds of some vegetables, may occasionally lie dormant for several seasons, and not hatch until some extraordinary coincidences awake them into active life." And Mr. Stephens observes respecting the same butterfly, "Till about the middle of the last century few specimens had been observed; but about sixty years since it appeared in such prodigious numbers throughout the kingdom that the entomologists of that day gave it the appellation of the Grand Surprise." It also occurred again in plenty in 1789 and 1803, since which time it has been seldom met with. The same author elsewhere observes, "The cause of this interesting phenomenon appears inexplicable: its solution has baffled the enquiries of entomologists, and several speculative opinions have been advanced thereon. By some persons, their sudden increase has been attributed to the previous failures of their enemies, the ichneumons and the soft-billed birds; others again suppose that their eggs lie dormant until called into life and vigour by some extraordinary latent coincidences."—*Nat. Hist.*

Professor Agassiz's Lecture on Glaciers.

He proposed to his audience to pass up the Glacier of the Aar, in order to examine its surface and structure. The superficial appearance of the Glaciers is similar—a close examination of one will enable an individual to understand the general structure of others. In the phenomena presented, however, there are marked differences in the various Glaciers spread over Switzerland.—The Professor then proceeded to explain the reason why he had selected this Glacier for his residence, and for exploration. He pointed to the diagram representing Switzerland with its ranges of mountains. Between the two main chains of the Alps lie the two great valleys of Switzerland, running east and west, the Rhone flowing in one part and the Rhine in another part of these valleys.

The two valleys constitute the principal longitudinal valleys of Switzerland—all others are at right angles to them. The ranges of the Alps run parallel to these valleys. The high ridges of the mountains are cut transversely by deep fissures. The geological structure of the Alps differs widely from that of the Jura, and this difference in structure is the cause of the Glaciers being larger in the Alps than in other chains. The high plateaux are crossed by deep fissures, in which the Glaciers run down at right angles to the main ranges. For example, from the range of the Jungfrau, the Glaciers run south, east and north, but at right angles to the mountains. No one Glacier extends to the main valleys of Switzerland—all the Glaciers terminate in the lateral valleys—no one reaches lower down than 3000 feet above the level of the sea. The Glacier of the valley of Chaumouni reaches the lowest point of all.

The appearances of the transverse valleys, as you ascend them to visit the Glaciers, are very similar—the general phenomena presented are the same. But travellers seldom reach the upper valleys where the Glaciers are formed. In passing up to San Bernard or the Grimsel, the traveller passes along at the foot of the valleys in which exist the Glaciers. But the upper valleys present the most striking views of Alpine scenery—barren, bleak and bold, where neither a blade of grass grows, nor stands a tree or

shrub, nor lives an animated being. The prospect afforded, at times, is indeed sublime.

Very few observers have seen the Glaciers at different times during the day—under the different aspects which they present at night and morning. The phenomena vary widely, whether the Glaciers are viewed in the morning, at noon, or in the evening.

The Professor remarked, that after he becoming satisfied that many of the facts stated by Sassure were wrongly understood or improperly applied, he determined to make the most thorough explorations of the Glaciers, and, if possible, to afford to the world true and full information in regard to them. He found it necessary to seek, for examination, some Glacier of easy access from his own residence at Neufchâtel, and where the influence of the sun and shade upon the same could be well observed and understood. He soon found that the Glaciers running north and south would not meet his object of exploration, as their whole surface is affected alike—what happens in the morning will happen in the evening, and the action of the morning will be balanced by that of the evening, and the different effects of light and shade cannot be minutely observed. The Professor then looked for a Glacier running east and west or west and east, and finally selected the Glacier of the Aar, as the one for exploration, this Glacier running west to east. The north side of this Glacier is exposed to the action of the sun during the whole day—while the south side, protected by mountains 11,000 feet high, is constantly in the shade, which extends over a large portion of the Glacier. This Glacier was selected as the Professor expected to visit it at all seasons of the year. The valley of the Aar runs south and north at right angles to the Glacier.

Professor Agassiz here pointed to the diagram of Switzerland, designating especially the range of the Grimsel, rising to the height of 6,500 feet above the level of the sea, and two lakes, one lying in a valley parallel, the other in a transverse valley—these lakes are about 2,000 feet above the level of the sea. It was from the level of these lakes that the Professor commenced his journey up the valley to the Glacier of the Aar. For the first ten miles the country is almost perfectly flat

—the whole bottom of the valley is so level that a railroad might be constructed through it with ease—the soil consists of small rounded pebbles, with large angular boulders resting upon them. It is a singular fact that almost all the Alpine valleys are flat. The ascent, from the valleys, is not gradual, but abrupt and difficult to accomplish. After passing over the ten miles, you ascend a steep ridge 1,000 feet high, and descend again about 900 feet to a second flat valley, then again ascend a second ridge, descending to a third valley similar to the other in its characteristics and formation, and so on, through a succession of these ridges and valleys till you reach the Grimsel.

The first ridge above referred to is highly important. It reaches across the valley, closing it entirely, with the exception of a narrow fissure, about thirty feet in width—the fissure affords a passage for the river Aar. The whole surface of the ridge is smooth—the valleys are flat, covered with rounded pebbles. All the ridges are scratched longitudinally, rounded and highly polished, so that they reflect like a mirror,—the striae are very distinct. The river Aar falls over a precipice 300 feet in height, forming the most beautiful rainbows, which are constantly resolving themselves into mist and spray. A clear rivulet which breaks into this waterfall forms a striking contrast to the thick yellowish water of the Aar.

Many persons have considered that the flat bottoms between the ridges were once lakes, and that the water escaped in the passage of the Aar through the fissures in the Alps. Professor Agassiz pronounces this a false notion.

From the termination of the valley of the Aar to the Grimsel is a flat. The Glacier levels the ground, and leaves it covered with gravel. The flats in which rounded pebbles are found, in the opinion of Professor Agassiz, give evidence of the existence, in them, of Glaciers at an early period.

The termination of a Glacier is generally abrupt and hardly accessible. It is usual when ascending one, to get upon its surface by climbing up some point at its side, and then descending upon it to its termination. The reason that a Glacier so terminates is, that it most generally has its termination upon a high

ridge. The Glacier of Chamouni terminates upon a steep precipice.

Professor Agassiz pointed to the diagram representing the Glacier of the Aar, showing its abrupt termination, its filling the entire valley. He also explained by a diagram, which he drew on the slate, the beautiful vaults which the water forms as it melts and trickles through the Glacier; these vaults are increased by the constant passage of the warm air through them, and not unfrequently they become so large, and so weaken the ice of the Glacier, as to cause immense masses to fall from it. These vaults also change from year to year. The river Aar, which finds its source in one of these vaults, flows at first over a very level surface and with a sluggish current. The Glacier being covered with rocks, borne down from the mountains, it very often happens that large masses of rock or boulders fall down from it. The lower part of the Glacier is entirely covered with rocks, and you may walk one quarter of a mile from its termination, and not reach the ice. The Glaciers differ very much in this respect; some show no boulders and furnish nothing but pure ice. Many of the Glaciers have lateral fissures, into which you may pass and see overhanging your head an immense arch of ice with rocks imbedded in it. Where a Glacier terminates in a valley comparatively wide, its termination is not so abrupt as above described. The Glacier of the Rhone is a most remarkable one; the ice is rounded. To ascend the Glacier of the Aar you must climb from 150 to 200 feet, for the termination is 200 feet thick. This is dangerous in the middle of the day, as when the ice is melting rocks are constantly falling; but in the morning and evening when everything is frozen, there is no danger.

The walking, when you have reached the surface, as one may well imagine, is none of the best, as you are obliged to pass among boulders from ten to sixty feet in diameter, with rough and perfectly sharp angles.

On the side of the Glacier of Aletsch, where it bends at right angles to its general course, there is a most singular natural curiosity, a lake about two miles in extent. The Glacier projects over the lake several hundred feet, the water of which is at about 40 degrees of Fahrenheit. This water causes the ice to melt,

so that it is constantly diminishing on its under surface, forming large hollows beneath it. In time, the ice becomes weakened, breaks, and large masses, often 50 feet in diameter, fall into the lake and float about, similar to the icebergs seen in the arctic seas. Icebergs, Professor Agassiz thought, were Glaciers or fragments of Glaciers, frozen on the high lands, and not the frozen ocean water. The structure of the iceberg also lends force to this opinion: the facts in regard to the lake of Aletsch, go to sustain it.

A Glacier, moving over level ground, has a smooth surface, but moving over unequal ground, it is broken into fissures, and has usually an abrupt termination. The crevices in the lower parts show that the surface is modified by the action of the sun and shade. The wall of the mountain on the north side of the Glacier of the Aar, is 2500 feet deep, and nearly perpendicular. The sun, melting the ice, on this side, does not allow the Glacier to form, and there is a deep chasm between it and the mountain. It is impossible to climb it except through the fissures. On the south side, the Glacier being so much in the shade, the sun does not melt the surface of the ice, and the face of the Glacier is not so perpendicular as on the north side. In the upper part the rocks fall and rest on the surface; lower down, they fall between the Glacier and mountain, and underneath the former, and are ground up into small pebbles. From the large Glacier twenty-six smaller ones may be seen coming down to it.

Moraines are formed by rocks falling from the mountains, that is, the lateral moraines. When two Glaciers meet, and there is a moraine lying between them, it becomes a medial moraine.

The Professor pointed out in the diagram the different kinds of moraines, as exhibited in the Glacier of the Aar, showing elevations of boulders to the height of 250 feet, the ice not melting when covered with them, but constantly accumulating, raising the boulders, and forming these mounds or elevations. A deep depression on the side was ascribed to the action of the sun. The inequalities of the surface arise from the boulders on the surface.

One of the mountains from which the Glacier of the Aar starts, is of gneiss, and the moraine consists of gneiss; the

mountain on the south side is of granite, and the moraine consists of granite. In one corner of the mountain of gneiss is a small quantity of granite; and portions of it are discovered in the moraine.

The crevices in the sides of a Glacier are not straight, but they always run from the margin upwards toward the centre. They are formed from promontories in the mountains and unequal pressure, but geologists thinking that the sides moved faster than the centre, ascribed the crevices to unequal motion.

The water melting upon the surface, runs along till it finds a crevice, in which it falls, forming, at times vertical, at other times most singular canals. These crevices are from 150 to 200 feet deep. This water being half a degree above freezing, and falling into a crevice, and striking alternately each wall of the crevice, it wears out hollows in the ice, and forms most curious spiral canals. At other times it forms vertical holes. Into one of these vertical holes the Professor was once let down, to examine the internal structure of the Glacier. He found innumerable crystals of ice, one foot in diameter, overhanging him, but he escaped without damage. Professor Agassiz wished to learn also, whether the water rushed through the fissure, or penetrated into the ice. From his examination he stated he was fully satisfied that the entire mass was penetrated with water.

[*Boston Daily Advertiser.*]

LADIES' SHOES.—If shoes were constructed of the shape of the human foot, neither too large nor too small, and making an equal pressure everywhere, corns and bunions of the feet would never exist. But, unfortunately, shoes are seldom made after this fashion; and in ladies' shoes, especially, there are generally two signal defects: first, the extremity of the shoe is much too narrow for that part of the foot, (namely, the toes), which it is to contain; and, secondly, for displaying as much of the foot as possible, the whole of the tarsus and metatarsus are left uncovered, and the pressure of the shoe in front is thrown entirely upon the toes. The toes are thus first squeezed against each other, and then pushed out of their natural position; and all the projecting points, chiefly where the joints are situated, are pinched and tormented. And thus corns are generated.—SEL.

Washington's Visit to Boston.

The following, from Sullivan's lectures on public characters, gives some idea of the etiquette of olden times. The starch of the celebrated men of '76 would be suddenly shaken out of them, if they lived in these jostling days.

In 1779, President Washington visited the eastern states. He travelled in a post chaise with four horses; he was accompanied by Major Jackson, official Secretary, and by Tobias Lear, his private secretary; and attended by his famous man Billy, who makes a conspicuous figure in the forged letters, which Washington repudiated, by a solemn denial, filed in the office of the Secretary of State on his retirement from public life. From some mismanagement at the time between Boston and Roxbury. Washington was detained there nearly two hours; and exposed to a raw, north-east wind; by which exposure he was visited by a severe cold. Many other persons were exposed and affected in like manner, and the affection became so general as to be called the Washington influenza. He came in on horseback, dressed in his old continental uniform, with his hat off. He did not bow to the spectators as he passed, but sat on his horse with a calm, dignified air. He dismounted at the old state house, now City Hall, and came out on a temporary balcony at the west end; a long procession passed before him, whose salutations he occasionally returned. A triumphant arch was erected across the street at that place, and a choir of singers were stationed there. When Washington came within hearing, he was saluted by the clear, powerful voice of Daniel Rea, who began the ode prepared for the occasion.

Hancock, with some feeling of 'state rights,' had taken the position that, as the representative of sovereignty in his own dominion, he was to be visited first, even by the President, who, on Hancock's own ground, is the representative of sovereignty of all the states, wheresoever he may be within their limits. The President was made to understand that Hancock expected the first visit. This was not deemed proper by the President. A negotiation ensued, and there were some written communications. It ended in the refusal of the President to see Hancock unless at his own place of abode, which was at the corner of Court

and Tremont streets. The delay was afterwards imputed to Hancock's personal debility. On the third or fourth day, Hancock went in his coach, enveloped in a red baize, to Washington's lodgings, and was borne in the arms of servants into the house. The President remained here about a week, and partook of a public dinner, dined with the governor, and attended an oratorio in King's Chapel, on which occasion he was dressed in black. On his departure for Portsmouth, he showed his regard for punctuality. He gave notice that he should depart at eight o'clock in the morning. He left the door at the moment. The escort not being ready, he went without them; they followed and overtook him on the way.

Costume of Former Times.

When Governor Bowdoin reviewed the troops of Massachusetts, in 1797, he was dressed in a gray wig, cocked hat and white broadcloth coat and waistcoat, red small clothes, and black silk stockings.

The Judges of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts, as late as 1803, wore robes of scarlet, faced with black velvet, and in summer, black silk gowns.

In 1783, Gen. Washington arrived in New York, from Mount Vernon, to assume the duties of the Presidency. He was dressed in a full suit of Virginia homespun. On his visit to New England soon after, he wore the old continental uniform, except on Sabbath, when he appeared in black.

John Adams, when Vice President, wore a sword, and walked in the streets with his hat under his arm.

At his levees in Philadelphia, President Washington was clad in black velvet, his hair was powdered, and gathered behind in a silk bag, yellow gloves, knees and shoe buckles; he held in his hand a cocked hat, ornamented with a cockade, fringed about an inch deep, with black feathers; a long sword, in a white leather scabbard, with a polished steel-hilt, hung at his hip.

Fly in all haste from the friend and associate who will suffer you to teach him nothing.

Button your coat to the chin when a proud man begins to flatter. His assaults upon your understanding denote a design upon your pocket. [*South. Patriot.*]

Rare and Useful Seeds.

Our readers, we hope, will feel no less interest this year than in 1845 and '46 in planting the seeds sent. They will soon find themselves in possession of a few, of the different kinds which we have taken pains to procure; but we wish them to bear in mind one or two things. In the first place, some of our seeds will be no rarities to some of those who will receive them; as the Catalpa, which is happily cultivated in Georgia and some other parts of the country. In the next place, some of the seeds will necessarily be inappropriate to some of the climates, or situations to which we shall send them. And, lastly, the supplies we usually furnish are generally very small. We hope, however, that our friends will make due allowances; for few persons have ever raised trees from seeds. Many, indeed, of those who ought to do a part of the needful task of stocking waste grounds with useful timber, and adorning public walks with beautiful trees, are ignorant of the forms and nature of the most common seeds, as well as the time or mode of gathering and planting them.

It is not only proper in many cases, to invite attention to a particular plant, or to give a sketch of its history, but, to stimulate interest, and lead the reader to the first actual efforts in this department of 'American duty,' (as we think it right to call it,) it may often be requisite to place a few seeds in his very hands, and say: 'Here are the very germs themselves—try an experiment yourself, and here are the directions.'

Similar remarks might be made of such flowers and edible plants as we wish to propagate throughout our country; and we feel assured, that no amount of writing or printing would be as likely to effect as immediate, extensive and useful an improvement as the simple course we have commenced and intend to pursue.

In cases in which the seeds of plants are sent to places of uncongenial climates, we may well suggest to our friends the advantage which they may derive from them. If they have green houses, let them plant in them; and if they have not, let them select warm spots, or form such shelter as circumstances may render convenient, or ask whether the construction or the preparation of a green house may not be desirable.

Our Seeds, Plant all sent.—The 'Catal-

pa' seed is small, in the midst of a thin, papery film, and may be planted now. The 'English Hawthorn' seed-vessel is like a small cherry, with a little stone. The 'Mountain Ash' is a red berry, with several minute seeds. (See vol. ii. p. 304; vol. iii. p. 67, &c.

DRILLING HOLES IN GLASS.—Holes may be bored through glass with a drill dipped in spirits of turpentine. With a steel drill, kept moist with the spirits, and used with a bow, a smooth hole may be drilled through glass of any thickness. The drill is not blunted more than it would be by piercing iron of the same thickness. Even with a broken triangular file, a hole may be drilled through the bottom of a tumbler in a short time.—**SELECTED.**

NEW DISCOVERY.—A cataract has been discovered on the river St. Louis, where it falls into the western extremity of Lake Superior, which has never been described by any geographer. It is said to be second only to Niagara. The volume of water is very great, and the perpendicular height of the fall one hundred and fifty feet.

A GOOD HUSBAND.—When you see a young man modest and retiring in his manners, who cares less about his dress than his moral character, depend upon it, ladies, he will make an excellent husband. If you see one that is kind and attentive to his mother, affectionate to his sister, industrious in his habits and economical in his business, rest assured you have found one of whom you will never be ashamed. The ball-room is no place to find a husband; the fashionable assembly is no place; it is in the retirement of home, in the place of business, where you can study the character and the disposition, and where the best outside is not put on for effect and display. Many a young woman sadly misses it, who is carried away by a bright look and a splendid dress. The man who makes the most polite bow and is most graceful in his manners, is not always the most suitable person for a husband. Look at the heart, study the character, and learn the disposition.—**SEL.**

Learning is obtained only by labor; it cannot be bought with money, otherwise the rich would uniformly be intelligent.

POETRY.

The Musical Clock.*

Wing the course of Time with music,
Music of the grand old days,
Days when hearts were brave and noble,
Noble in their simple ways—

Ways, however rough, yet earnest;
Earnest to promote the truth,
Truth that teaches us a lesson,
Lesson worthy age and youth.

Youth and age alike may listen,
Listen, meditate, improve;
Improve in happiness and glory,
Glory that shall heavenward move—

Move as music moves in pathos,
Pathos sweet and power sublime,
Sublime to raise the spirit drooping,
Drooping with the toils of Time.

Time recedes amid its grandeur,
Grandeur purer, prouder still;
Still revealing dreams of beauty,
Beauty that inspires the will.

Will a constant sighing sorrow,
Sorrow, full of tears restore,
Restore, but for a moment, pleasure?
Pleasure dead may live no more.

No more, then, languish for the buried,
Buried calmly let it be;
By the star of promise—heaven,
Heaven hath sweeter joy for thee!

For THEE, perchance, though dark the seem-
ing,
Seeming dark may yet prove bright,
Bright, in MORTAL cares, may softly,
Softly dissipate the night!

Night shall not endure for ever—
Ever! no! the laws of earth,
Earth inconstant, must forbid it—
Bid it change from gloom to mirth.

Mirth and grief are light and shadow,
Shadows, light, to us are dear,
Dear the scene become by contrast—
CONTRAST, then, in beauty here!

Here, through sun and tempest, merry,
Merry may thy being pass,
Pass without a sigh of sorrow—
Sorrow wins not by "Alas!"

"Alas!" we pardon in a maiden,
Maiden while her heart is young,
Young and timid; but in MANHOOD—
Manhood should be sterner strung!

* There is ingenuity in the construction
of the poem, but very little sense.—Ed.

Strung as if his nerves were iron,
Iron tempered well, to bend,
Bend, mayhap, but yielding never
Never when Despair would rend!

Rend the Pillars from the temple,
Temple in the human breast,
Breast which lonely Grief had chosen,
Chosen for her place of rest.

Rest! unto thy spirit only,
Only torment will she bring:—
Bring, oh, man! the lyre of gladness,
Gladness frights the harpy's wing!

Wing the course of Time with music,
Music of the grand old days,
Days when hearts were brave and noble,
Noble in their simple ways!

[T. S. DONOHO.]

Our virtues are born of our sorrows, as the
aroma of the plant is given forth only when
we crush it beneath our feet!—Should we
sorrow at the bruise which alone brings forth
the odour?—*Southern Patriot*.

It is a good sign to see a man doing an act
of charity to his neighbors.

SECRET WRITING.

Solution of Example 1, page 240.—

Honor and shame from no condition rise:
Act well your part—there all the honor lies.

The following is written after the direc-
tions given in Examples 1 and 4 combined.

William zvpoh gpml: bug uijol biscuit pme
gpmlt up of big black worm.

To our Old Subscribers.—The low price of
this Magazine renders prompt payment abso-
lutely necessary, and the paper will be sent
only to subscribers who wish to receive it on
the published terms.

⚡ Sir.—Payment has not been received from you for
Volume III.—\$2.

THE AMERICAN MAGAZINE.
AND FAMILY NEWSPAPER.

With numerous Engravings.

Edited by Theodore Dwight.

Is published weekly, at the office of the New York
Express, No. 112 Broadway, at 4 cents a number,
or, to subscribers paying in advance, \$2 a year. 7
sets for \$10. Monthly, in covered pamphlets, at same price.

Rare seeds sent to Subscribers.

Postmasters are authorized to remit money, and are
requested to act as agents.

Enclose a Two Dollar Bill, without payment of pos-
tage, and the work will be sent for the year.

"The information contained in this work is worth
more than silver."—*N. Y. Observer*.

"It should be in every family in the country."—
N. Y. Baptist Recorder.

The Methodist Chr. Advocate, N. Y. Courier, &c., &c.
highly recommend the work. ⚡ (Vols. I. and II. bound.)